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PEIPING

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To spend part of a vacation in the most interesting city in the Far East, visit its palaces and temples, and wander thru its maze of crooked lanes, to see the same bridge which Marco Polo saw in the thirteenth century, to have tea with Mei Lang Fang—greatest actor in North China—and see him play a part at the Chung-Ho theater, to meet Hu Shih, outstanding Chinese philosopher—to Chinese literature what Mei Lang Fang is to the drama—such was the happy experience of the writer in the summer of 1932.

Peiping is a China in miniature, a link between the past and the present, but so closely chained to the past that the present cannot break away. The metropolis of North China, it has carved a permanent niche for itself in history thru its fame as a capital of imperial dynasties. It is a city of strange contrasts, of long vistas in beautiful parks and dirty, crowded alleys, of gilt-edged palaces of splendid dimensions, and miserable hovels of confining limits. With a record of 4500 years, an often-times capital of China and known by various names, the experiences of its generations of people have been many and diverse. The Peiping one sees now is the city elaborated by the great Ming builders and the name, Peiping, which it bore in the early part of the Ming dynasty, is the name it again bears today. Foreign influence and the establishment of the Republic have made few changes and the city remains the same mysterious, picturesque, interesting place it has been for centuries.

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE CITY

From the top of Coal Hill the outline of the machicolated walls of four cities which comprise Peiping are easily traced. Immeditely at the south lies the Forbidden City, the innermost, with its vivid yellow imperial roofs. During centuries it was a mystery to the outside world. Until Peking was captured by the Allied troops in

1900, the Forbidden City was inaccessible to foreigners. Outside the Forbidden City is the Imperial City, formerly the residence of Manchu and Chinese officials. There is from Coal Hill a vista of its North Lake, across which rises a mound crowned by the White Dagoba of the Winter Palace. Outside the Imperial City again is the Tartar City—the "City of Nine Gates." The ramparts of the Tartar City, outlined by Kublai Khan during the thirteenth century, were stormed and rebuilt by the Mings in the fifteenth. Two hundred years later the Tartar City was reserved by the conquering Manchus as a garrison for troops charged with the defense of the Capital. Far to the south lies the Chinese City or Outer City to which the Manchus relegated the people they defeated. The southern wall of the Tartar City is the northern wall of the Chinese City. A canopy of trees hides within the Tartar and Chinese cities thousands of one-story and two-story houses, the dwellings of one and one-half million people.[1]

Street Scenes

A ricksha ride thru the streets of Peiping presents a very different picture from a bird's eye view of the four cities from Coal Hill. The main streets, running north-south east-west, lie between long rows of one-story shops with brilliant façades decorated with elaborately carved lions and gaping dragons. In front hang gaily-colored symbols signifying the type of business carried on inside. Locks, hinges and ornamental bits of metal painted on a small board indicate that a brassworker is ready to serve his customers. A kettle, pitcher, bowl and ornamental vase grouped together on another sign suggests to the passerby that perhaps his copperware needs to be replenished. A row of narrow tinselled cylinders betoken a dealer in dyes of various colors and shades. A square suspended at opposite corners between two triangles marks the shop where an apothecary dispenses plasters, salves, herbs, and drugs.

Street merchants offer fruits, just ripened, spread on open stands, velvet-skinned peaches and luscious persimmons. Watermelons cut in huge, juicy slices are stacked on long tables. Roadside bakers mix pasty dough and lay it in discs in cylindrical street ovens. Side-walk restaurateurs offer from their canopied shelves ring-shaped crullers, buns covered with sesame seeds, fritters, and

[1] The population of Peiping in August, 1932 was 1,530,890. Petermanns Mitteilungen, 1933, Heft ¾, p. 90.

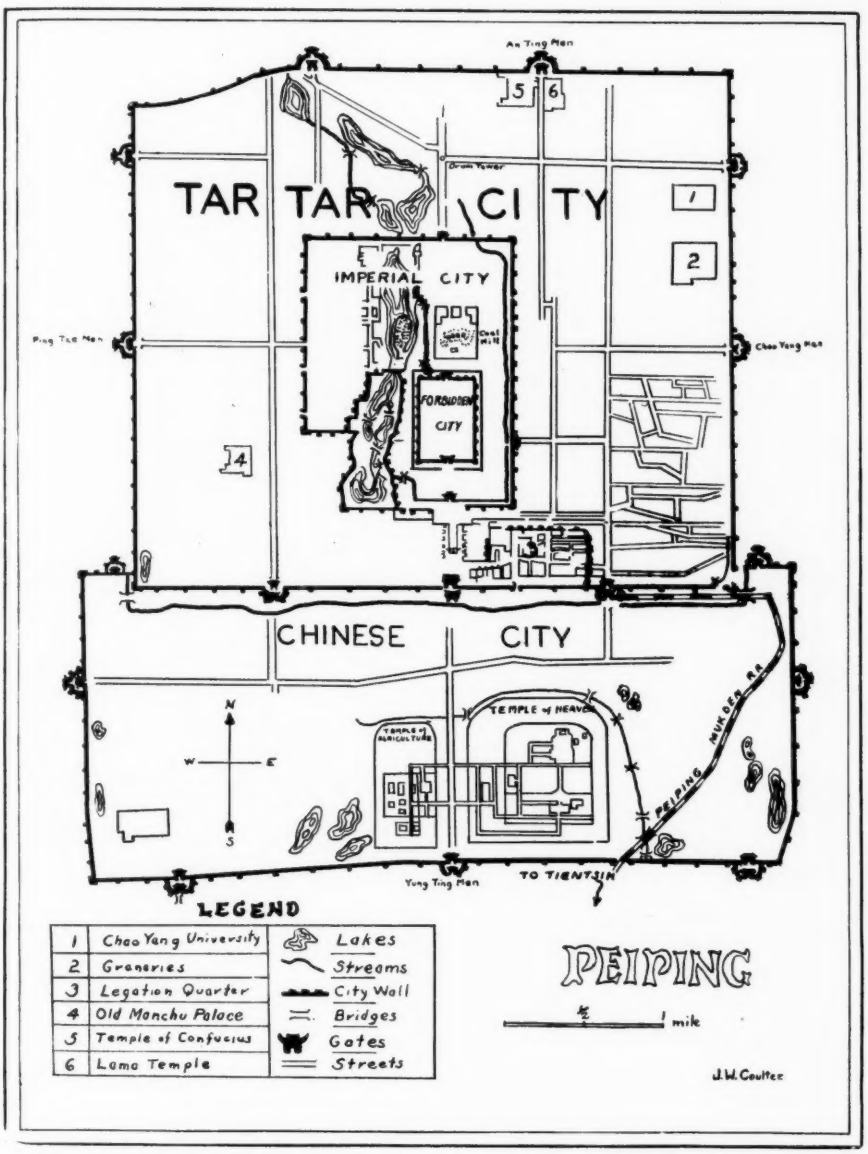

FIG. 1. Outline map of Peiping showing a few of the principal places of interest.

pancakes. Others fry mutton chops and carve ducks and chickens in full view of prospective customers.

Hawkers peddle cucumbers, cabbages and egg-plants on wicker trays slung on carrying sticks, and call their wares in lusty notes, prolonged to catch the ear of a possible customer. Water vendors fill one-wheeled carts at wells and push them, groaning, creaking

and squeaking, from door to door. Husky men haul in wheelbarrows blocks of murky ice saved from last winter's cutting.

Street cleaners shovel recent mud from gutters and spread it on dirty sidewalks. A fat, refractory pig, prodded to market, turns to root at odoriferous garbage and a lean little one noses the mud by the wayside. Groups of ubiquitous children scramble about naked. Some of them play with the white petals strewn from blooms of bordering locusts by a light breeze.

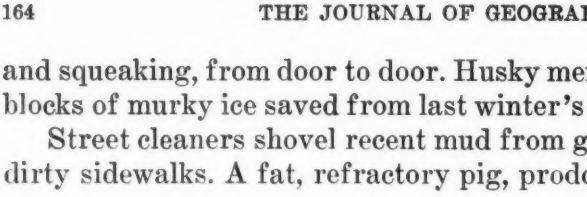

FIG. 2. A street scene in Peiping.
Photo by J. W. Coulter

Off the main streets are *hutungs* so narrow that it seems as if the fenders of an infrequent taxi-cab would tear projecting bricks from dilapidated walls. As an automobile approaches, ricksha coolies jaunt their fares into corners to escape the speedy vehicle.

At the gates of the outer cities farmers deliver their produce in long, wooden, springless carts drawn by horses and mules moving jerkily along the rutty roads. Strings of diminutive donkeys with heaping creels strain after shorter lines of tall camels with heavy packs.

PALACES

Away from the busy streets of Peiping, shut in by massive walls stand the palaces and other royal residences. Those in the Forbidden City, the geographical center of the great city of Peiping, are also the center of interest for the visitor. The present palaces, a series of verandahed halls constructed on high stone foundations, occupy the cite marked out for the palaces of Kublai Khan. To the Mings goes the credit for the beauties of the Forbidden City, for the Manchus added little to it.

During the last few years the Forbidden City has been converted into the present Palace Museum. The outer enclosures, the southern section of the Museum, consist of the throne rooms, the banquet

hall, exhibition halls, and spacious paved courts with tiers of marble steps leading to magnificent yellow tiled buildings. Besides the grand halls of historical interest, there are many rooms which are used for exhibiting objects of Chinese art. There are to be seen the imperial gardens where the emperor used to spend his leisure hours and give feasts, the residential palaces of the emperor, the empress and the palace ladies. There is the residential palace of the Empress-Dowagers of different periods and the many courts associated with it.

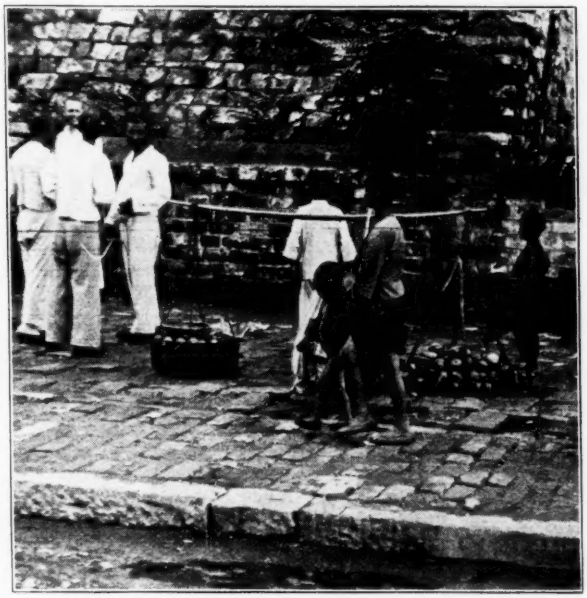

FIG. 3. A street vendor in Peiping.
Photo by J. W. Coulter

The so-called Sea Palaces of Peiping, one of which is The Winter Palace, are built in and around a long lake, the origin of which has been traced as far back as the Chin dynasty, that is, to the early part of the twelfth century. Edifices constructed by the Mongols were replaced in later years by many buildings erected by the Manchu rulers: residential quarters, reception halls, temples, theaters, pavilions and boat-houses. They may be divided into three groups—each group associated with a lake—the North Lake, the Middle Lake, and the South Lake.

During my stay in Peiping I visited the Northern Lake or Pei Hai several times. The architectural characteristics of the old buildings and their historical associations impressed me less than the charm of the scenery. After walking by the lake one cannot forget the ailanthus and the weeping willows, the thick rushes near the shore and the lotus flowers far out on the surface. For those who are in a hurry, anxious to do the sightseeing as quickly as possible, Pei Hai is simply a decaying park with a few picturesque buildings, deserted and denuded of their ancient beauty, but for those who

take time to linger and reflect on the bygone ages it suggests, there is conjured up a story of the intimate and human side of a court-life which, in spite of its outward splendor, sought repose and reflection in the beauties of nature.

TEMPLES

Having viewed the palaces of the old Imperial City a visitor is next drawn to the temples. The Temple of Heaven in the Chinese City probably heads the list of temple attractions, with perhaps the Lama Temple in the Tartar City coming second. The Temple of Heaven was second only to the Palaces in splendor and surpassed them in holiness. It was a marvel of architectural beauty, but is now slowly falling to ruin. Juliet Bredon states "No other sanctuary on earth has a more profound or grandiose conception, or more adequately expresses the instinctive desire of humanity to show reverence for a Power above and beyond its puny self."[2]

The enclosure of the Temple of Heaven is surrounded by walls three and one-half miles long. The grounds are beautified with gnarled cypress, fir, and pine trees; cedars flanking the avenue from the gate to the temples are nearly a thousand years old. Near the principal entrance to the grounds is the Palace of Abstinence where the Emperor spent the night in fasting before the semi-annual ceremony performed only by him. In the grounds there are also the Temple of the Imperial Tablets and the Temple of the Happy Year. Other buildings include guard rooms and structures for the storage of paraphernalia of worship.

The principal structure within the Temple enclosure is the Altar of Heaven, the most sacred object in Old China. It is built of white marble in three circular terraces with balustrades and triple staircases at the four cardinal points to ascend the upper terrace which is thirty yards wide. In the northern part of the upper terrace is a seat where Shang-ti, the Ruler of Heaven, was supposed to sit during the ceremony performed semi-annually by the Emperor. Beside the seat were the shrines of "witnessing saints," ancestors of the Emperor.

Every conqueror of China took to himself the privilege and responsibility of worshipping at the Altar of Heaven, and the chief functionary has at various times been of Chinese, Mongol or Manchu blood. One man and only one, the Emperor, the Son of Heaven, was thought fit to ascend that worshipping place and do homage

[2] Juliet Bredon, Peking, p. 132. 2nd edition, Shanghai, 1922.

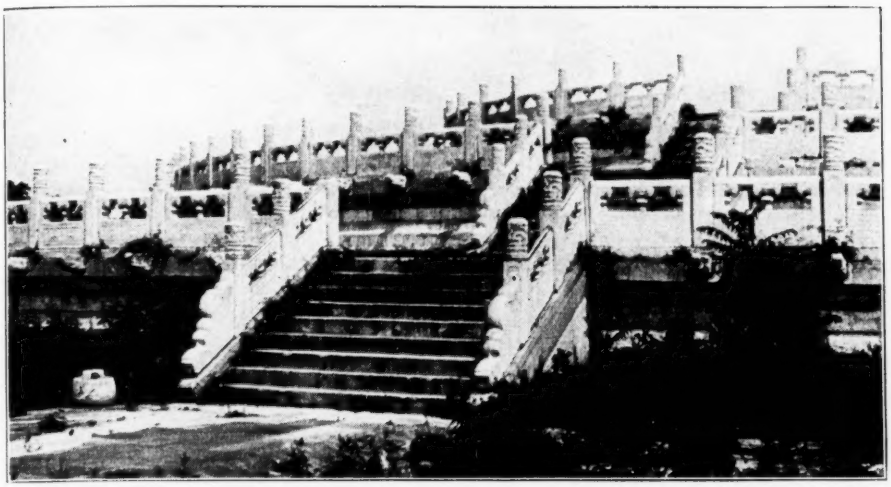

FIG. 4. The Altar of Heaven. Photo by J. W. Coulter

to the Supreme Being. No foreigner was ever privileged to see the Emperor officiating in his capacity of High Priest. Just before the Imperial Visit to the Temple took place, special notices were sent out warning foreigners not to approach or attempt to look on the Imperial procession. Chinese were ordered to remain indoors and to put up their shutters along the line of route. In absolute silence, the sovereign made his journey and his sacrifice. No priest of any religion ever officiated and the elaborate ceremonies were carried out by court officials who, in preparation for it, underwent months of training and instruction.

The walls which surround the Temple Grounds have become dilapidated. Repairs to the temples, altars and grounds have been neglected and, unless renovated, in a few decades they will be in ruins overgrown with vegetation. Weeds have grown between the marble tiles of the Altar and in the space about it grows a jungle of brush.

Among the several temples in Peiping devoted to Lamaism, an unattractive form of Buddhism, the Lama Temple, really a monastery, is the most interesting. It is known to the Chinese as Yung Ho Kung, or "Lamasery of Eternal Peace." "Built by the Chins in 1084 to contain relics of Buddha, it was magnificently embellished by Kublai Khan in 1271 as a Lama temple dedicated to the Bodhisatva Manchushri, or 'Buddha of wisdom.'"[3]

[3] Juliet Bredon, *op. cit.*, p. 198.

On entering the temple grounds, one passes thru a long, wide avenue, past the living quarters of the monks, poorly ventilated cells that have accumulated the filth of centuries. The monastery consists of a series of semi-detached buildings grouped about courtyards. The buildings, in a sad state of decay, are ornamented with intricate carvings and the courtyards are paved with broken and dilapidated flagstones. The principal object of interest is the great Buddha, sixty feet high, carved, it is stated, from a single tree trunk and brought from Tibet. The poverty stricken monks, dirty and decrepit, are all Mongol or Tibetan, and have scorned to learn Chinese, but many of them have picked up a little pidgin English to help them beg money from foreign visitors.

Among other temples in Peiping which engage the attention of a visitor is the Temple of Agriculture, situated across an avenue from the Temple of Heaven, and known in Chinese as Shen Nung Tan, that is the "Altar dedicated to Shen Nung," Shen Nung is a mythical emperor who ruled China about 3,000 B.C., and who is credited with the invention of the plow, the institution of markets, and the discovery of the value of herbs. The Temple of Confucius, very near the Lama Temple, is located in the grounds of the old national university of China. The chief object of interest in the large hall of the temple is the ancestral tablet of the sage enshrined in an alcove. There are many other temples in the Chinese City, the Tartar City, the Imperial City and the Forbidden City.

Hutungs

After seeing the temples we may pass on into the byways and side streets. The maze of crooked lanes which constitute the *hutungs* of Peiping are always a source of interest to the stranger. Not a few of them are associated with historical events of former dynasties. Tung Ch'ang Hutung is reputed to be the scene of infamous tragedies carried on by Wei Chung-hsien, a profligate character of Ming times. In Ch'eng Hsiang Hutung lived a cruel monster, Yen Shih-fan, depicted as a one-eyed, bull-necked brute who was eventually executed for his crimes. Liu Luan Su Hutung during the Yuan or Mongol dynasty was the site of a temple called the T'ien Ching Ssu, a name which was subsequently altered to Yuan Tu Sheng Ching. Small temples found in the *hutungs* today are hoary with the rime of ages.

A trip thru the *hutungs* does not give a visitor any idea of the beautiful homes hidden behind their ugly walls. The magnificence

of a home is always carefully concealed from passers-by, and some palatial residences are hidden behind dilapidated-looking structures of brick, mud, and plaster. A gatekeeper opens an unimposing entrance to the stranger and upon proper identification permits him to pass into a courtyard from which access to the home is obtained. The homes of affluential and influential Chinese in Peiping cover large areas and are attractive for the spaciousness of their courtyards as also for the buildings themselves. Many for-

FIG. 5. Chinese wooden, springless carts approaching An Ting Men, a gate in the north wall of the Tartar City. Photo by J. W. Coulter

eigners have rebuilt and furnished Chinese homes very attractively.

The presence of foreigners[4] in Peiping is betokened most by the Legation Quarter which dates from the time of the Boxers, for since that time a definitely marked and adequately protected quarter has replaced the older group of legations which were separated by Chinese residences and official buildings. Adjoining the southern wall of the Tartar City, the quarter is separated on all sides from the city itself by walls and open spaces. Under the terms of the Boxer protocol no Chinese are allowed to reside in the Legation

[4] 62,983. *Op. cit.*, p. 90.

Quarter, and no foreigners except missionaries are supposed to live outside. However, in times of stress and political uncertainty the quarter is filled with Chinese refugees and, as its area is restricted, foreign business men reside in scattered districts of the Tartar City.

INDUSTRIES

Peiping is not an industrial city. Most activities of that kind arose in connection with the old court life and imperial needs. Today an odd assortment of industrial pursuits are picturesque rather than important. In thousands of homes busy families work long hours making articles of many kinds which eventually find their way to distant parts of the world. Hundreds of small shops are miniature factories. Modern efficiency is virtually unknown but art and craftsmanship are found in high degree. Household and shop work is generally on a piece price basis and workers put in long hours to turn out their variegated wares. Because of the scattered locations of the homes and shops, it is very difficult to obtain accurate statistics of the nature of the manufactures, their value, and the amount of the output. It is also impossible to find out just how much is shipped from Peiping, as products of the city are mixed with shipments from the surrounding area and exported from Tientsin.

Industries in Peiping include the manufacture of rugs, laces, artificial flowers, lanterns, cardboard boxes, hats, toys, paper or joss money for the dead, carts, and harness. Knitting woolen yarn, wool dyeing, wool carding, embroidery and tailoring of various sorts are carried on. The making of jewelry, cloisonne, brassware, lacquerware are also among the many lines of industrial activity. There are a few small woolen mills where blankets and other textiles are made, and a few tanneries and shoe factories.

Transportational activities are an important feature of Peiping's industrial life. The city is the terminus of the Peiping-Hankow, Peiping-Suiyuan and Peiping-Mukden Railroads. Railway officials and workers in the railway yards have their homes there. Camel trains add a colorful aspect to the city's transportation system. Much of the coal used in Peiping comes by camel-pack from the vicinity of the Western Hills.

Part of Peiping's industry depends on trade with thousands of visitors. The city is one of the more important tourist centers in the Far East. In addition to manufactures for the tourist trade, and

transportation activities dependent in part on it, there are hotels and hostelries where visitors are cared for during their stay in the old Capital.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

One cannot close a sketch of Peiping without mentioning its educational institutions, the hope of the future. Since the success of the Nationalist movement in the summer of 1928, and the consequent removal of the Capital to Nanking and the substitution of the old name Peiping for Peking, the city has become less important politically and commercially than it was before. Educationally, however, it still maintains a predominant position. In Peiping are found not only universities established by the Government, but also educational institutions maintained by Foreign Missions and the Rockefeller Foundation. Of the national universities the best known is Peking National University, popularly called "Peita." Owing its origin to the Reform Movement of 1898, it is one of the oldest government universities of the modern type in China. Of the various departments the Philosophy Department is one of the better known on account of the work of Dr. Hu Shih. The youngest, but the largest university in the city, is the Peiping National University. It has eight colleges, all of which were formerly independent universities but were merged by an order of the Nanking Government. The Peiping Union Medical College admits students of both sexes to a four year course in medicine, conducted in English. Facilities are also provided for graduate study in all the departments represented by the faculty.

Among other educational institutions in the city is the well known North China Union Language School, the comfortable living quarters of which are in the summer put at the disposal of visitors in the city. The National Library of Peiping, another institution of great educational value, built in beautiful Chinese style, is well stocked with books and current periodicals.

Perhaps on account of its educational institutions a new Peiping will arise on the old Peking. A democracy may grow and develop on the ruins of ancient imperialism. We hope, however, that the relics of the old dynasties will remain; landmarks of the past, they remind us of the old society on which the new is built, of the past ineffaceably bound to the present.

UNHAPPY PUERTO RICO

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THE ISLAND AND THE PEOPLE

As a result of the Spanish-American War the United States in 1898 took possession of Puerto Rico. The island is fourth in size among the Greater Antilles, having an area of 3435 square miles, one-fourth of which is under cultivation. Three-fourths of the Island consists of rugged hills and mountains rising above 4000 feet. An irregular belt of lowland a few miles in width, consisting mainly of alluvial soil, extends around the island and provides most of the sugar cane land. The forests were largely removed during the Spanish period and the greater part of the upland is now rather thinly covered with scrubby growth or small trees, the latter especially in the coffee district, where shade for the coffee trees is desired. The better soils have been cropped for centuries, are considerably depleted, and in many areas require artificial fertilizing. About one-sixth of the cropped land is irrigated. This is mainly on the south side of the island.

When the United States took possession of the island, coffee was the principal crop and was marketed almost entirely in Europe. Sugar was second. The 400 or more sugar mills were small contraptions propelled mainly by oxen and were very inefficient. The population in the Spanish period reached about 1,000,000, the greater part of whom lived—and still live—in the highlands and constitute a distinct element in the population known as Jibaros. The Jibaro is a white or nearly white mountaineer, possessing the traits often found in mountain or hill peoples and forming now the chief economic problem of the island. The few Indians who survived the Spanish conquest have merged into the rural population but seem to be a small element. Thruout the Spanish period, and to a large degree still, the Jibaros have constituted a neglected and poverty stricken peasantry, living in flimsy shacks off the beaten paths, the adults nearly all illiterate, and only partially aware of their own desperate economic condition. However, some of the leading men of Puerto Rico are educated sons of Jibaro families. Only about one-fourth of the population have Negro blood.

PROGRESS OF THE ISLAND

When the Americans took over the government of the island our troops were welcomed by most of the Puerto Ricans, who expected that American rule would promptly bring the high wages, high plane of living, and general prosperity which they were told existed in the United States.

During the thirty-five years of American rule the degree of self-government accorded the Islanders has steadily increased. A few key offices are still filled by appointments made by the President of the United States, and the Governor has the power of appointment of a number of officials who may be Americans but are mainly Puerto Ricans. In 1931, of 7,143 government employees all except 233 were natives of Puerto Rico. Several of the high officials appointed by the President are natives of Puerto Rico and the tendency is to increase steadily the number of appointive officers selected from among the Puerto Ricans themselves. Both houses of the Legislature are completely controlled by the Puerto Ricans who have been given American citizenship and have all the rights and privileges of American citizens.

With customary energy, the Americans with the co-operation of leading Islanders, have thrown themselves into the task of bettering Puerto Rican social and economic conditions. More than 4,500 elementary schools now exist. A University having 1,500 students, a college of tropical medicine, a normal school and over twenty public high schools have been built and equipped. Illiteracy has dropped from 85 per cent to 48 per cent. In the schools both Spanish and English are taught but nearly all of the teachers are Puerto Ricans. Forty-two per cent of the revenues of the island are used for educational purposes, a remarkably high figure.

Three hundred miles of public service railway, more than a thousand miles of hard surface roads, and another thousand miles of graded dirt roads have been built, and every town of any size may now be reached by automobile. All of the larger cities are equipped with modern utilities—water systems, sewer systems, and electric lights. Many of these material improvements have been financed by issuing bonds, and the present insular and municipal debts total $46,000,000, and impose a heavy burden on the taxable property of the island.

THE DOMINANCE OF SUGAR

Sugar has become king, and recently reached a production of very nearly 1,000,000 tons a year as against 36,000 tons prior to

the American occupation. The sugar acreage has risen from 61,000 to 250,000 and the yield an acre has trebled. The sugar industry employs 200,000 laborers but many of these are employed for only a part of the time. All of the four larger crops of Puerto Rico have wide seasonal fluctuations in their demand for labor, and great numbers of laborers can be employed at best for only part of the year. Naturally, the 41 modern sugar centrals employ improved machinery, which cuts down the demand for human labor and increases the problem of unemployment. During the European war, and at times since, the sugar plantations have been extremely profitable and have paid dividends as high as 25 per cent per annum, and in some cases have paid stock dividends of 100 per cent. During recent years the sugar companies have made either small profits or none at all, and their stockholders have received small returns on their investments.

Sugar so completely dominates the economic life of the island that other crops—tobacco, coffee and fruit—are regarded as of secondary importance altho the fruit industry, largely under control of Americans, has made notable strides in the last decade. Far the greater part of the capital invested in sugar and tobacco plantations is American capital and the net earnings of these properties pass mostly into the hands of non-Puerto Ricans. However, I have it directly from an official of the Sugar Growers Association that about 80 per cent of the gross earnings of the sugar companies are paid out in the island for labor, taxes, food, supplies, etc. As a whole, the big sugar companies are unpopular and by many are regarded as absentee owners draining the wealth of the island.

TARIFF ADVANTAGES AND TRADE

The fact that Puerto Rican products of all kinds may enter the United States tariff free is a great advantage to individuals and corporations that send their products to the States. By reason of this tariff-free provision the Puerto Rican sugar companies have fared much better than the Cuban companies which, tho they have a tariff preference of 20 per cent in U. S. ports, still may pay more in tariff charges than the sugar sells for at the mills in Cuba. One of the chief complaints made by the Puerto Ricans is the complaint of foreign domination of their biggest industries.

The external trade of the island grew phenomenally during the greater part of the period of American control. This trade has risen from $13,000,000 during the last years of the Spanish period to

nearly $200,000,00 (1930), or fifteen times the value of the external trade prior to the American rule: nearly all of this trade is with the United States. The wealth of the island has increased very greatly despite three terrible hurricanes that together destroyed more than $150,000,000 worth of property, and on each of these occasions rendered homeless hundreds of thousands of families. The passivity and fatalism of the Jibaro may be related to the recurrence of these terrible storms.

SERIOUS DIFFICULTIES

When one considers the very great economic development that has taken place in Puerto Rico, the remarkable growth of education, the high character and large number of schools and other institutions of learning, the higher wages paid, the great improvement in health conditions, and many other betterments it would seem that the Puerto Rican people should be more happy in their lot than is the case.

The fundamental difficulty in Puerto Rico is serious over-population and consequent unemployment, and the wide prevalence of three serious diseases—tuberculosis in the slums of the cities, malaria in the lowlands, especially in the irrigated lands where the mosquitoes multiply, and the prevalence of hook worm among the rural peoples. It is said that 200,000 are victims of malaria and 600,000 victims of hook worm. Nearly all of the mountain families suffer from hook worm because of the unsanitary conditions around their homes and their practice of wearing no shoes. The Rockefeller Foundation has done excellent service in the island in combating hook worm, but the illiterate mountain people give but poor support to the efforts of this Foundation. Hook worm is readily curable but requires the co-operation of the victims. The birth rate is very high and formerly the infant mortality rate was also high. The birth rate still remains high; families are large, but the efforts of the Department of Health have so reduced the death rate that the problem of over-population is growing more and more serious. The population density is 460 to the square mile. The Jibaro parents regard their children as a gift of God and they seem to be welcome no matter how numerous. Herein lies an apparently insuperable difficulty. The population is already far beyond a reasonable limit but continues to increase, and the more successful the Department of Health is in its efforts the more difficult the over-population problem becomes.

POLITICAL DISCONTENT

Some Puerto Ricans are vociferous in their demands for complete self-government. While 96 per cent of the officials of the island are Puerto Ricans, a few of the key offices are held by Americans from the United States and the appointive and the veto powers of the Governor give him a degree of control which some Puerto Ricans resent. The politically-minded Puerto Rican, like most Latin Americans, is fond of political agitation and oratory; he loves to hold office, and thrives on political contests. One of the favorite methods of seeking to win elections is by impassioned denunciation of the foreign capitalists, foreign employers of labor, and other foreign influences in the island. Nearly always at least one party in the elections demands complete independence, while other parties demand self-rule or statehood.

So liberal are the fiscal arrangements which have been extended to Puerto Ricans by the United States government that Puerto Rico enjoys greater privileges in some particulars than any of our states enjoy. All internal revenues, import taxes, and income taxes collected in the island are retained in the island for its exclusive use. Puerto Rico contributes nothing to the cost of operation of the United States government. Moreover, all the federal services such as lighthouses, naval bases, military protection, etc., are paid by the United States government without any contribution from the Puerto Rican people. The better informed Puerto Ricans appreciate this favorable condition and realize that they would probably lose it if they were to secure complete self-government or statehood. At election time the island seethes with political agitation. The newspapers and the rostrums pour forth demands for greater autonomy, and orations of "give me liberty or give me death" type abound. However, I was told by a number of influential Puerto Ricans that no considerable group of responsible people in the island really desires independence or believes that complete self-government with the loss of federal revenues now received would be practicable. Thus, a part of Puerto Rico's unhappiness is due to political agitation and a part is due to the genuine and desperate conditions of poverty which prevail, particularly among the Jibaros and in the slums of the cities. Excuse as we may many of the unfortunate conditions in the island and discount as we must a good deal of the political fire-eating, it still remains true that one of our islands that came into our control without any voice on its own part is in a pitiable condition; that hundreds of thousands of people

are living on the verge of starvation, that thousands of children scarcely know what it is to be free from the gnawing pangs of hunger, and were it not for the school lunches provided in some districts the child death rate might be very much higher. Public spirited Puerto Ricans and interested Americans in the island are doing all that is humanly possible under the conditions to improve the lot of these people. The Island revenues are far from adequate to meet the situation, but if Congress were to give funds to the people continuously it would still further pauperize them and still further rob them of any initiative. The Jibaro already is sadly lacking in enterprise and would become even more so if the government provided him with a dole even for a time.

No Solution in Sight

But is there no solution? Some have suggested extensive emigration of the surplus people to the United States. This is wholly impossible under present conditions and probably wholly inexpedient under normal conditions. The Puerto Rican cannot compete with manual labor on the Mainland. The adults speak very poor English, if any English. They are foreign to our customs, the strain of Negro blood in many of the families would be a social barrier. There seems to be no hope in the direction of extensive migration to the Mainland.

An experiment of transporting Puerto Rican laborers to Hawaii has been made but is reported to be unsuccessful, and, altho Hawaii needs laborers they are said not to desire Puerto Ricans. No considerable number of Puerto Rican laborers can be provided for in Cuba or Haiti or other islands of the West Indies. These islands, with the exception of Cuba, are almost wholly peopled by Negroes with whom the Puerto Rican white laborers could not compete. During times of prosperity quite a large number of young educated Puerto Ricans who speak English have gone to New York City where it is said they have a colony of 100,000 people. These young people have been educated and speak both Spanish and English and most of them are white stock. They made a reasonable economic success in New York when times were good, but doubtless are suffering severely at the present time.

Another proposed solution, and one that is being tried out, is that of transferring certain light manufacturing industries to Puerto Rico and employing women and girls especially for needlework. The Puerto Rican women are very skilled in needlework and some fifty thousand, or more, of them are employed by com-

panies that send the materials to the island along with superintendents to direct the work, and the results have been fairly successful, but, as would be expected, there has arisen the outcry that the capitalist Americans are exploiting the womanhood of Puerto Rico. It is claimed that the wages are unreasonably low and the profits by the companies unreasonably high. An effort at cigar and cigarette making on a large scale in the island has been nearly defeated by the demands of organized labor. It seems, therefore, that this effort to develop industries in the island is going to be as unpopular as other American enterprises.

Obviously something must be done, but whatever is attempted encounters strenuous objection from some quarter. It is a most baffling situation and up to the present no solution is in sight.

THE PLACE OF SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY IN THE HIGH SCHOOL*

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Introduction

Since last March when a brief description of the course in Social Geography that is offered in the Detroit high schools appeared in the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY, I have received a large number of inquiries about the course and requests for material relating to it. From this it is apparent that there is sufficient interest in a certain type of high school geography to justify further discussion of the subject.

I am not a geographer in the strict sense of the term. I am a social scientist but one who has a special interest in geography.

With this brief introduction I wish to discuss the place of social geography in the high school as I have come to see it thru my own study and observation and that of others.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF GEOGRAPHY

Geography is one of the oldest subjects in the school curriculum, and it is potentially one of the most valuable offered in the

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schools. But even so the course of this subject in the schools has been an irregular one. At one period one phase of the subject was emphasized, then later another phase, and still another thru physical geography, commercial geography, and on to economic geography, which seems to be popular at the present time. These various points of emphasis are but parts of geography as a whole.

At first I thought I would try to state a definition of geography. But when I began to analyze the statements made by others on the subject, I realized that to state a definition that would be generally accepted would be a difficult task. However, there seems to be general agreement on certain points. In the first place, geography is a study of both the earth and man; and in the second place it is a study of the relationships that exist between the two. As near as I can tell, this is about as far as the agreement goes.

During the present century there has arisen what is generally known as the "new geography." The term was used no doubt in the same way that the terms "new schools," "new education," and many other things to which the modern progressive sounding word "new" has been applied. And yet I wonder if the geography which stressed relationships that was called "new" thirty years ago was really new. Guyot, in his book, "The Earth and Man" which was published in the year 1849, emphasizes the relationship between the earth and man, as did also Ritter and Humboldt before him.

But now there is a tendency to speak of geography, not as the "new geography," but rather as human geography or social geography. These terms are at least descriptive.

Another phase of the history of geography has to do with the courses that have been offered in the high schools. During the first decade of the present century physical geography was a very popular high school subject. In the following decade, however, the teaching of physical geography in the secondary schools experienced a decline. One writer thinks that this decline was brought about by "the attempt to humanize high school geography and give the subject a content having an emotional pitch."[1] The fact is that the decline of physical geography paralleled the decline of other science studies. It is probably more true to say that the life of geography in the schools has been lengthened by the injection of this new humanizing element.

The twentieth century has also seen the rise of commercial geography as a school subject. The study of this phase of geography developed during the second decade of the century and was greatly

stimulated by the World War and interest in world economic events which followed. During recent years this has been by far the most popular high school course in geography. In a study made four years ago it was found that out of 254 courses in geography offered, 175 of them were commercial, 66 physical, and 13 miscellaneous.[2]

Geography as a social study in the high schools of the land is apparently a rare thing. It is to be found in a few places, but in a recently published monograph of the National Survey of Secondary Education entitled "Instruction in the Social Studies" no occasion was found to mention the subject of geography as a high school social study.

It seems to me, tho, that there is a sort of restless activity in the geography field. "At the present time, geography may be compared to one of Rodin's statues in which we see a beautiful figure as it were struggling to escape from the marble in which it is imprisoned. So the geography of today is in the act of escaping from the matrix of mere facts in which it has been too long imprisoned."[3] Even tho this statement was written by Newbigin more than twenty years ago, it would require very little modification to make it fit conditions today.

WE NEED TO KNOW THE WORLD TODAY

My statement that geography is in a period of restless activity at the present time is based on my observation that education as a whole is attempting to adjust itself to new conditions and new needs. What are the educational needs of the present day that geography can supply? Regardless of whatever else we need to know today there is one thing that the conditions of recent times have forced upon us. We need to know the world and its peoples as they are at the present time.

As I see it, there are three outstanding things that high school pupils should get from a study of the world today. You will supply your individual additions to this list. The order in which I state these is not particularly significant.

In the first place our boys and girls face a new world—a world that their parents as students did not know. Thru the World War and the development of science and inventions the remotest parts of the world have been brought to our homes. The world is one. The necessity of world co-operation has been forced upon us. Never before did we find so many good reasons for knowing about the entire world and its people.

A second goal of education today is the development of social integrity in the various areas whether local, national, or world in scope. The people in different parts of a region should have a sympathetic understanding of one another. Such an understanding soon develops into genuine interest. And where there is understanding and interest there is not likely to be hatred and war.

A third reason why we need to know the world and its peoples today is that we may read the daily news with understanding. A high school education should develop reading interests to last thruout a life time. We are all most interested in things that we know about. Today's newspapers, magazines, and books, as well as the radio news, are full of references to the various parts and peoples of the earth.

Thus, in order to meet the needs of present day life, the high schools should provide their pupils with these three things: (1) the necessity for world co-operation, (2) the need for and desire for social integrity, and (3) a cultural background for reading and thought.

THE COURSE IN SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

In order to provide high school pupils with the knowledge, understanding, and the world view necessary to make them worthy citizens of their times, new studies must be provided. The old studies which were sufficient unto their day are not sufficient unto this new day.

The geography courses which in general are offered today do not fill the need. Physical geography is defined as "the study of the physical features of the earth and their influence on man."[4] With the chief emphasis on the physical features of the earth and little on the social life of man, it is apparent that this study will not do.

Commercial geography also treats of a very limited part of present day world affairs. This subject "deals with production, transport and exchange of useful commodities."[5] This, too, fails to answer the needs of present day education.

Even the newer and yet broader course called economic geography is too limited in scope for our needs. Economic geography is "the study of the relationship existing between the physical environment and man in the production and distribution of wealth." This is simply economics with a geographic background, and economics is only one of the social studies.

Courses in Physical, Commercial, and Economic Geography are inadequate as high school studies for other reasons. Valuable as

these courses are in themselves, it is impossible for any one high school pupil to study all of them. If one course is all that a pupil has time for, it should be general rather than specialized.

Another reason why these special courses are inadequate to present day needs is that they deal in general with facts only. Facts of course are desirable and we want our pupils to learn as many as they can use. But facts alone are not enough. We need something of what our physical geographer called "an emotional pitch." We need that something that influences thought and leads to definite modes of action. This, the cold facts of science do not always accomplish.

It is evident, therefore, since the present courses in geography deal only with single or very limited phases of man's activities, that they fail to meet the fullest needs of the present day. Since life does not happen in organized sections but in unorganized wholes, why not study the people of the world today as we find them. This is the type of course I wish to propose.

Social geography is a study of the world as it is today. It is a study of the peoples of the earth as they are grouped in geographic or in political regions. It is a study of peoples and regions in the broadest sense of the word. The study includes the economic, political, and cultural activities of the peoples and the relation to their natural environment.

Social Geography in this sense is a course of study in its own right and not simply a helper brought into some other subject like history or economics.

In order that Social Geography may be of the greatest service to the high school student it should come as early in his course as possible. Since many senior high schools now include only grades 10, 11, and 12, this course should be offered in grade ten. The student is thus able to use his knowledge of geography with his later high school studies. And since it is increasingly common for geography to end with grade six of the elementary school the lapse of three years makes the high school course in geography practically a new one.

To be more specific, what does this study include? Take a political region like Mexico for example. The following things are studied altho perhaps not in this exact order: (1) the general geographic conditions, (2) the people who live in Mexico, (3) what the people do, (4) what they produce, (5) how they live, (6) what they have in the way of culture, such as schools, churches, art, etc., (7) what

they have to sell that we need and what they need that we might supply, and (8) how all these social conditions are connected with the natural environment. All thru this study an attempt is made to teach the necessity for international co-operation, to develop the ideal of social integrity, and to give a cultural background with reference to the people studied.

SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY AND HUMAN GEORAPHY

Someone is probably asking, "How do you justify the name Social Geography instead of Human Geography or some other term for this course?"

The name Social Geography is particularly fitting at the present time when the socialization of youth is being stressed all thru the school. Not only in the field of the social sciences do we find socialization but in other departments as well, as indicated by such titles as "Social Arithmetic," "Social Biology," "Social Science Readers," and "Social Psychology." In all books with such titles an attempt is made to emphasize the socializing side of the subject. It is recognized today that no one department can teach all of social science. There is social science in all school subjects, and to that extent they are social studies. But this particular course in geography is so full of social content and socializing possibilities that it can truly be called a social science.

I use the term Social Geography in preference to Human Geography because it is a more fitting term for the content and purpose of the course. Human Geography refers to the content of geography while Social Geography refers to both its content and purpose. Human Geography refers to the study of man in relation to his physical environment and may refer to man in the singular as well as in the collective, while Social Geography pays more attention to people living in groups. At least this is the emphasis of the course in Social Geography.

Social Geography serves as a basis and background for the other social sciences. The sociologists emphasize the influence of the physical environment to the extent that one almost begins to think of Social Geography as sociology. Professor E. A. Ross[6] says that no one disputes the fact that the immediate physical environment dictates the size and local distribution of a population, the key industries, the basic occupations. "In fact," he says, "the environment determines the general economic basis of society." The sociologists also declare that the natural environment affects the

higher life of society—that is it affects human energy, political thought and form of government, religion, marriage and sex relations, ethical standards, and psychic tendencies.

It is true that some prominent geographers who use the term Social Geography do not use it in the sense that I have indicated. Dr. Ellsworth Huntington[7] makes a distinction not only between Social Geography and Economic Geography, but also between Social Geography and Human Geography in which he makes Social Geography the more restricted term. If economics is a social science then it is difficult for me to see why economic geography is not one phase of social geography just as industrial, political and commercial geography are phases of social geography.

Carl Sauer says, "The question as to what geography is must continue to be asked, because the answer determines the premises under which the data have been assembled."[8]

Just as I have used the term Social Geography, and others have used the names Economic or Industrial Geography, Professor Sauer uses the term Cultural Geography. While Sauer does not define the word "cultural" in the sense in which he uses it, Joseph K. Folsom states that "modern social science uses the word culture to designate everything in human life that is artificial or super-biological." This meaning would scarcely fit the content of Social Geography.

VALUES FROM SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Up to this point I have been stating what I think of geography as a whole. Of course much of what I have said is mere theory because not every phase of Social Geography has become experience. Three years ago we were faced with the same challenge that I have thrown out here today—"How can our boys and girls be prepared to meet the day in which they live?" One part of our answer to this question was the organization of a course in Social Geography for tenth grade high school pupils.

The proof of the value of such a course as Social Geography is in the values which come to the high school students from a study of the subject. From statements submitted by high school principals, high school geography teachers, and students who have completed the course, I compile the following list:

1. Pupils become more familiar with the world of which they are a part.

2. It builds up a geographical vocabulary and locational knowledge basic to intelligent general reading.

3. It gives meaning to history. It not only shows that history is tomorrow's story of today, but it establishes an intelligent background for the study of the past. It tends to make the people of history more real and human.

4. It tends to make the peoples of the entire world neighbors.

5. It helps the students to understand other people. This understanding tends to make for friendship.

6. It shows that co-operation among all peoples is essential to the well being of all peoples.

7. Geography has a cultural contribution to make. There is cultural value in understanding other peoples, in knowing how they work, live, and think, and why they do as they do.

8. It helps the student to read intelligently the daily news, the magazines and books, and to listen to the radio.

9. It helps in the development of a scientific attitude on the part of pupils. The scientific mind looks for causes, searches for truth, and tries to understand.

10. In addition to the commercial products which we get from other lands we should also look for the great spiritual values—literature, music, art, etc.

11. It helps to develop the international mind that tends to look upon the people of other nations and races as brothers. This attitude if developed the world over should make war impossible.

In this list of values I believe it will be seen that the three goals of education stated above, namely, the need for world co-operation, the development of social integrity, and the building up of a world-view cultural background, are all included. If these values were all achieved, and surely they are all possible of achievement, I think you must agree that only a course as broad as Social Geography will meet these needs.

A Social Geography Textbook Needed

There is at present no satisfactory textbook for the high school course in Social Geography. In general, high school teachers still require a textbook. It is not my purpose here to argue for or against the use of a textbook. As conditions are now we need a text and a satisfactory one is not available.

Such a book will be written. If the geographer does not write it someone else will. Such a book should be written by the geographer who is also a social scientist. Because the geographer has in general been too conservative, the writing of this material has been taken

over by those less prepared to present the geographic side. In my opinion here is a challenging opportunity for some social geographer to prepare material which is both geographically and socially sound.

THE TEACHER OF SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

When Mr. E. B. Wesley, writing in a recent number of the *Historical Outlook*, spoke of the difficulty in finding teachers of geography who could teach history, and teachers of history, and other social sciences, who could also teach geography, he stated a common difficulty.

This situation is improving, however, by the graduate schools permitting teachers to take a social science major in the place of the former single subject major. I hope this applies to geography departments in our colleges where the training of public school teachers is involved. Teachers in their training can easily carry specialization too far. Most high schools today do not want teachers who know only one of the social sciences. They should know them all including geography.

The extent to which a history teacher makes use of geography in his course depends very largely on how much geography he knows. A few days ago I was talking to one of our history teachers. I asked him how much geography he was able to bring into his history course. He said, "Before this year, not very much, but last summer I took some courses in geography in summer school and now I see geography at every turn."

This answer could well have been the starting point of this paper. It concludes either in actual statement or by implication the very things I have been trying to say. One of our needs in education today is more geography, that is, geography humanized, geography socialized, geography as a study of the world today—Social Geography.

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MODERN TENDENCIES IN THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY*

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Before I proceed with my topic as announced, I wish to make clear two things. First, it should be understood that we are interested not so much in the tendencies that we shall examine but rather in their *significance* for the teacher and supervisor of geography. The second point I wish to clarify is that the topic as announced seems to be somewhat contradictory because the first modern tendency concerning geography teaching, is the one that would eliminate geography as such and make it one of the elements of content in the "social sciences." Altho we in New York City do not subscribe to this tendency, it is worth noting as a significant step in the treatment of geography.

Many changes have taken and are taking place, and so that you may follow the discussion more easily I will consider those changes or tendencies under four main heads:

1. Changes in the meaning of geography
2. Changes in the aims and objectives in the teaching of geography
3. Changes in the content of geography and in its organization for teaching purposes
4. Changes in the methods of teaching

It will further help you to follow the discussion if you will bear in mind that the modern tendencies to be noted under any one of these heads are frequently related as cause and effect, or as effect and cause to the tendencies noted under the other heads.

CHANGE IN MEANING OF GEOGRAPHY

To begin with the most fundamental modern tendency—the change as to the meaning of geography. One hundred years ago, geography was defined as the "study of the earth," whereas today it is usually defined as the "study of the earth in its relation to man and life," or as our Course of Study defines it as "the study of the earth as the home of man."

The change in definition seems to be but slight but the signifi-

* Presented to the Geography Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education.

cance of this change is far reaching as to content to be developed, as to aims and objectives that are to guide the teacher and as to method of approach. No longer can we accept as the criterion of good geography teaching results, the standards that were accepted 100 years ago. An interesting copy of a certificate issued on March 8, 1826, was recently published in the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY.[1] It will bear reading to you.

GEOGRAPHY A CENTURY AGO

Certificate

Elizabeth Crane hath been engaged, during her attendance at this school, in storing her memory, that strong and capacious storehouse of mankind, with useful ideas, lessons and information generally.

Pursuant to this end, she hath deposited in her memory for future use the multiplication and other arithmetical tables.

She hath repeated the principal divisions, oceans, islands, etc., and answered 109 questions on the map of the world. She hath recited the principal divisions, lakes, rivers, bays, gulfs, etc., and answered 41 questions on the map of North America.

She hath defined the boundaries of 12 of the United States and repeated 95 of the chief towns and 33 of the principal rivers belonging to these 12 states and answered 86 questions corresponding to the geography of that fine country.

On the map of South America, she hath committed to memory the different countries belonging to that great peninsula and repeated 58 chief towns and 33 of the principal rivers and answered 39 questions corresponding with its geography.

Let no one say, hereafter, that females cannot learn, for that is an assertion without foundation. Elizabeth is a living proof to the contrary and she merits the approbation and encouragement of her parents and friends.

(Signed) P. WARDEN

Morristown, New Jersey
March 8, 1826

This eulogy on the results obtained by Miss Elizabeth could be rendered only with the old static idea of geography in mind. When geography was just a study of the earth, little change could be expected to take place in method or in content or in purpose.

The new definition first used about 50 years ago introduced into the teaching of geography the factor of relationship—the relation of man to his surroundings, how he controls his surroundings, and how his surroundings influence him. It made geography and geography teaching dynamic—it must change with every change in man's fundamental needs and therefore in his adjustment to his environment and in his ability to control his environment. This matter of relationship carries in its train many significant changes. The teacher's information can no longer remain on the memory level. She must understand geographic influences; she must under-

[1] Vol. XXXII, No. 7, October, 1933, page 298.

stand what relationships man can possibly bear to his surroundings. She must know that in this respect man has three basic relationships—that of finding food, that of providing shelter, and that of clothing himself. These fundamentals and more the teacher must fully comprehend or she cannot possibly be a good teacher of geography. Her preparation must be more thoro. The content must be reorganized so that it can be shown in the relation of cause and effect. The emphasis must be shifted from memory to thinking in terms of geographic units.

OBJECTIVES IN TEACHING GEOGRAPHY

This brings us to the second phase in which the modern tendencies are significant, i.e., as to our aims and objectives in the teaching of geography. What are the traditional aims? What are the modern aims? An examination of the two will make clear the tendencies involved. The traditional aims were usually spoken of as the practical and the disciplinary, and at times the pleasure aim was added, altho that was a rather late development.

How was the practical aim interpreted? It was interpreted to mean a certain number of locational facts. What these facts were, depended upon the particular community for which the course of study was drawn. Each community, of course, emphasized a slightly different variety of these locational facts. One sample of this we found in the case of Miss Elizabeth. The practical aim was what is sometimes referred to as "sailor geography," the locations that a sailor might need in directing his craft.

The disciplinary aim was interpreted in terms of the old formal discipline theory that developing a faculty of the mind in one situation would produce a result that would function in other situations. Since the emphasis was on memory, memory was the chief faculty to be developed thru geography, and by an extension of this reasoning, the more facts that had to be memorized the more development was the memory faculty receiving.

The pleasure aim was usually involved in the idea that it added to the pleasure of travel to be able to locate the places on a map.

What are the outstanding modern aims and objectives in the teaching of geography? We still have the practical aim, but this has been given a new emphasis and a new interpretation. The practical aim now involves not only information, but it also involves the establishment of certain habits and the development of certain abilities. Locational facts are still listed as among those items of in-

formation that the child must possess as a result of his geography course, but these locational facts are now correlated with events, correlated with various other important relationships which give significance to the particular place being located—it may be a center of population; it may be the receiving station for a large fertile area; it may be a river whose presence helps to explain the mode of living of a large part of the population; it may be a mountain barrier which man has had to conquer. Whatever the locational fact is, however, it should not be given merely for and of itself; its relation to one of the fundamental activities of man should be stressed. Certain habits are to be developed as part of our practical aim in the teaching of geography—the habit of interpreting phenomena in terms of principles. The change of day and night, the change of seasons—these are to be interpreted in terms of principles. They are important because man must adjust himself to these changes. There is also the habit of localizing events; a recognition of the fact that events are influenced by places. Events without place have little significance—therefore the child must develop the habit of localizing the important events of the day—Where is the Soviet Union? What and where is Iraq? Where is Muscle Shoals?

Included in the practical aim also is the development of certain abilities such as the interpretation of charts, of maps, of map symbols, etc. These are abilities needed in the reading of modern newspapers and magazines and must be developed in connection with geography teaching.

Next among the modern aims we must note the moral and civic —and when I say note at this time, I mean note well. If the teaching of geography is to do anything at all, it should develop the attitudes that we list as moral and civic objectives. Geography is the one subject in our course of study which takes in all of mankind. It is the only one of the social sciences in the course of study which considers all races and all peoples. History emphasizes the national point of view. Geography has no national point of view with which to contend. It is by its very essence international in scope and by this very fact, it must become the school vehicle thru which we are to develop those attitudes which we hope in the last analysis will make for and bring about a lasting peace.

What are these attitudes that we wish to develop? They are respect for other peoples, sympathy with other peoples, understanding of other peoples, a realization of the force in modern life which we refer to as interdependence. If geography teaching can-

not produce these attitudes, then it should immediately be taken out of consideration as a social science, because a social science must contribute to the knowledge of group living. How are these attitudes of respect, sympathy, understanding, interdependence to be developed? Certain qualities must exist in the teacher herself. I will not expand on this because I do not wish to take up the next speaker's topic, but I do want to point out that the teacher's knowledge of geography must be deep and understanding. Respect and sympathy and understanding of other peoples can be developed thru an understanding that all peoples are engaged in the same efforts to supply man's fundamental needs; to get food, to get shelter, to get clothing. Any differences that appear in the methods of doing these things are not important. They can be and must be explained in terms of geographic location, of geographic influences—of climate, of moisture, of soil, of atmosphere, and others. There must be a cessation of the use of such terms as queer, curious, peculiar, when speaking of other peoples. The Chinese or the Eskimo or the Hottentot are not queer nor peculiar nor curious. They are doing the same fundamental things we are doing, but they are doing them largely because of different geographic conditions. Our course of study attempts to emphasize this objective in the fourth year when it considers the life of the Eskimo and the life of the Congo Village, but our course of study does not in my opinion go far enough in this respect. This idea that we are all engaged in doing the same things, but doing them in different ways chiefly because of different geographic influences that are involved in our different localities should be emphasized right thru the course of study. Then perhaps we would succeed in developing a full respect for other peoples; a full sympathy with their efforts; and a full understanding of their contributions to civilization. We would begin to realize that interdependence is a real force which should operate to maintain peace among the various elements that are interdependent. This moral and civic objective must be obtained if we are to learn to solve our social economic and political problems. In an age when transportation and communication are as fast as they are in ours, and when peoples are so strongly interdependent, the causes of any social economic or political problems are almost invariably of international origin—and it follows that the solutions to be lasting must be made on the international basis. A strong nationalism need not be abandoned, but the international point of view must be developed, and there is no better foundation for this than the de-

velopment of sympathy and respect and understanding of all peoples.

CHANGES IN CONTENT

Having viewed some of the newer tendencies as to the meaning of geography and aims in geography teaching, we are ready to understand some of the newer tendencies in the reorganization of the content of geography teaching. To save time I will not review the traditional organization of geography content, but will try to explain the significance of some of the more important changes.

The first change we must note is the approach to geography by a study of some of the more simple ways in which man still adjusts himself to his environment—the Eskimo, the Congo native, the desert tribes, etc. Thru these the child learns the important activities in which man is engaged and how he performs these under different conditions. These topics are followed by a consideration of his own city and country, and the wise teacher can lead him to see that he is trying to do in a different way what his brothers in other parts of the world are doing in their way; the Eskimo kyak gives way to his ferry, the Congo grass hut is replaced by his apartment house, and his bus takes the place of the Japanese ricksha.

Another significant change in content organization is the rapid displacement of the political region as the unit of study. When locational facts were of the greatest importance then the political unit was adequate as the basis of study. But with the shift of emphasis to the relationships involved in geography study, the political unit with its accidental or arbitrary boundaries, with its borders often enclosing territory that is subject to varying geographical influences became meaningless and frequently resulted in duplicating a study of the cause and effect relations involved, e.g., when studying the south central states, much of the material studied in connection with the north central states had to be repeated. To avoid this the most recent tendency is to organize the study of geography on the basis of the *regional unit.* We have not yet agreed as to what is the best principle of integration to be used in the choice of these units. Is it to be physiographic similarity resulting in the physiographic unit or is it to be the presence of a set of geographic elements that lead to a uniformity in living conditions resulting in what is referred to as the social use region? But no matter what principle of selection is used and how many regional units a given part of the earth is divided into the significant thing to note is that the regional unit type of organization of geography content re-

quires on the part of the teacher a thoro knowledge of the geographic principles and the ability to bring out the cause and effect relations involved.

CHANGES IN METHODS OF TEACHING

We now come to the final group of new tendencies, i.e., those in methods of teaching geography. The new tendencies in this phase of the work are the inevitable results of those previously considered, as well as the expression in some instances of the progress in all pedagogy. What are some of these changes? Memory is no longer the basis. It must give way to thinking. The study of "words" must give way to the study of things and facts. The pupil is no longer to be considered as the passive recipient of information poured in by the teacher or thru a text. Relationship—cause and effect, development of habits, abilities, attitudes—are now emphasized and the pupil is now conceived as the active learner. Pupil activity, pupil participation and pupil coöperation in the learning process are now to be the rule. These tendencies are given expression in a number of new class room procedures and in the use of many new devices. There is time to list but some of these newer procedures here.

The use of the problem approach, the use of the type study, the use of the project and the socialized recitation, the use of the journey method (an imaginary process), or the excursion (an actual trip), the wide use of a variety of visual aids, including grafs, pictures, stereographs, slides, motion pictures, the constant correlation with history, with music, with art, with literature, the frequent use of the experiences of the children or of their parents and friends —all of these and many more class-room devices are used to convert a passive recipient of information into an active, interested, thoroly motivated learner.

SUMMARY

To sum up our brief survey of the new tendencies in geography and geography teaching, if I were asked to name the two or three most important tendencies of significance to the teacher and supervisor, I should list first and foremost the new moral and civic aim in the teaching of geography—to develop sympathy and respect for other peoples, and understanding of them, and a realization of the real meaning of interdependence as a basis for a point of view that may lead to the establishment of permanent peace. I should also include the shift of emphasis from the static view of the meaning

of geography with its emphasis on locational facts to the dynamic view with its emphasis on the earth as the home of man; and I should add to these two the introduction of the regional unit as the basis of content organization, and in methodology the new emphasis on pupil participation and on facts and things rather than on words.

In conclusion, I should like to add that a realization of the significance of these changes should lead the teacher to resolve to prepare herself thoroly to the end that her teaching of geography may do its bit in developing in the child that total of knowledge, habits, abilities, appreciations and attitudes that will bring nearer a complete understanding and tolerance of all peoples by all peoples.

IN THE RICE FIELDS OF BURMA

ERNEST YOUNG
London, England

Note: Rice is another of the typical products of the monsoon lands, tho as a matter of fact, it is also grown in the valley of the Po in Italy, and in countries with a warm oceanic climate, e.g., the south-west states of the United States and certain parts of Africa and South America. The chief exporting countries are Burma, Siam, Indo-China and Korea (Chosen). Our lesson deals with Burma, which is, politically, part of India but, geographically, belongs to Indo-China.

Rice is a kind of grass and the part we eat is the seed. Rice is grown on land that must be flooded with water and needs much heat. It is cultivated chiefly in the monsoon lands of India, China, and Burma where the summers are both hot and wet. As a rule, all over the world, the people who grow rice eat most, if not all of their crops themselves. Burma, however, has much more rice than it needs, and sends large quantities to other countries, where it is often sold as "Indian" rice.

Because rice is grown under water, and for much of its life in standing water, the fields must be flat, so that the water may flow evenly over the whole of the surface. Hence the rice fields are mostly in low-lying level plains, tho in the hilly parts of Burma they are found in the valleys, and in other countries they are sometimes cut out in shelves on the sides of hills. To prevent the water from running away the fields are surrounded by little banks of earth which are often used as footpaths for, at certain seasons, all the rest of the ground is either under water or, if not, very muddy. To prevent the water escaping by sinking into the ground the soil must be of such a kind that the water cannot drain away.

Rice, like rubber and tea, is sown in a special field called the nursery, where it is allowed to grow till it is from six to twelve inches high; but the rice nursery is flooded. While the young rice is growing in the nursery the other fields are being prepared. They are plowed, under water, and turned into a rich sloppy mass of mud. The plow is made of wood but has an iron point that cuts furrows in the ground. It is drawn by slow moving oxen or by water buffaloes. Water buffaloes are big, ugly animals with huge

FIG. 1. Ploughing the rice fields during the rainy season. Photo by L. Dudley Stamp.

horns; they are very tame with their native owners, and little children may often be seen driving them about, running behind them with a stick or sitting peacefully on their broad hard backs as they make their way along very rough paths or thru streams and flooded fields. On the other hand, water buffaloes do not like white people, and will often attack them.

When the fields are ready, the young plants are taken from the nursery to be transplanted. They are pulled up about a hundred at a time, shaken gently to remove some of the mud, and then tied up in bundles. These are carried to the fields, where men and women, walking backwards deep in mud, push them into holes five or six inches apart: into each hole go two or three plants.

In the hot, wet air and ground, growth is very rapid, often six to nine inches in twenty-four hours, so that two crops and sometimes more can be obtained from the same field in one season. The

stems of the rice plants, mostly green, but sometimes red or purple, are hollow and jointed like those of the tall grasses we so often see at home. At the end of each stem there is a large number of little branches, each of which bears one grain: there may be as many as two hundred or three hundred grains at the end of a single stem. This means that the farmer may reap two hundred or three hundred grains for every one he sows.

Between planting and harvesting the water must not be allowed to become stale, so fresh water has to be supplied as the stale

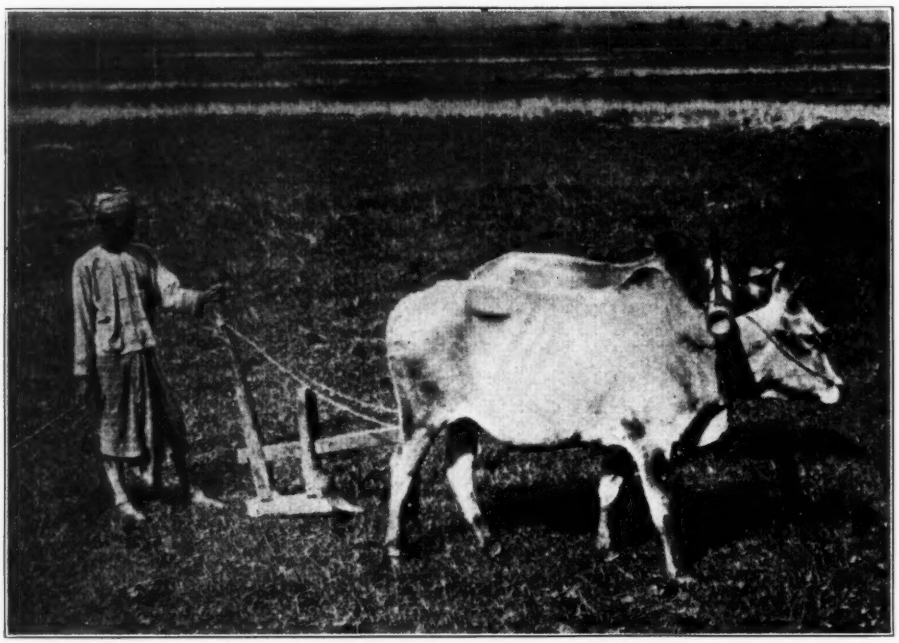

FIG. 2. Ordinary type of ox plow used on rice land, Irrawaddy Delta. Burman in usual native dress. This is the appearance of the rice land after the harvest. Photo by D. A. Ahuja.

runs away. Moreover, much time must be spent in keeping down the weeds which are just as fond of water as the rice and want to grow just as quickly!

As the plants ripen, they change in color and the water is allowed to dry up gradually until the grain is fully ripe and ready for harvest. Harvest time is from October to December. The stalks are cut by hand with sickles, a certain amount of straw being left to be eaten, later on, by the cattle. The grain is tied up in bundles that look much like sheaves of wheat at home, and are left for two

or three days to dry. They are then carried home to the village in carts drawn by bullocks or buffaloes.

To thresh the rice, the sheaves are spread in a big circle on a smooth, hard piece of ground, over which the cattle are slowly driven round and round, steadily trampling out the grain. When the threshing is done, there is a huge pile of grain, husks and bits of straw from which the grain has to be separated. The separating or winnowing, is done by the wind as the mixture is being tossed into the air in a shallow pan or basket. As the chaff flies about in

FIG. 3. Water buffalo cart, Burma. Photo by D. A. Ahuja.

the sunlight, its bright yellow color mixes with the vivid green of the trees behind it to form, with the pretty colors of the people's clothes, a picture that can be seen nowhere but in these warm sunny lands of the East.

The rice is still not quite fit for use because it has a hard husk. In this condition it is called paddy; in fact, in the East where most of the world's rice is grown, it is always called paddy, and the rice field is known as a paddy field. The husk is removed by pounding it with big pieces of wood in large deep wooden bowls, after which it is again winnowed and then washed. The women usually do this kind of work, and in any small village you can hear a steady thump, thump, thump from morning to night. Much of the Burmese rice crop, as we have said, is sent away to other lands. That which is kept for use at home is stored in large baskets made of cane and

plastered outside with mud; these stand on a raised platform and are covered by a roof of leaves.

Growing rice is hard work. It is tiring enough, on a summer's day in America to stoop down and weed the garden: it is much worse to work in blazing sunshine and, except at harvest time, to be standing all the time in six inches of mud and more than six inches of water!

The people who do this work in Burma are mostly the Burmese, tho Chinese, Indians and others are also to be found in the same

FIG. 4. Typical Burmese hut and family winnowing and pounding rice.
Photo by D. A. Ahuja.

land. The Burmese are short and sturdy, with brownish yellow skins, black hair and broad, flat faces, like those of the Chinese.

They live in houses made mostly of the things that grow round them—wood and leaves. The wood may be teak or bamboo, and the leaves either of grass or of palm trees. The floors are made of split bamboo and the walls are bamboo matting, often woven into pretty patterns. Inside the house there are no chairs and no beds, for the people both sit and sleep on the floor. There is, however, usually a low table of carved wood, and always a number of sleeping mats woven out of different kinds of grasses.

Because there are few good roads except water roads, and no water supply thru pipes and taps for drinking, washing or cooking, the houses are usually not far from a well or a stream. In the valley, on account of the floods that come with the heavy rains, the dwellings may be on piles.

On low islands in the river and in places that lie rather low near the banks, the people may be obliged, during the rains to go away till the floods are over, tho most of them manage to remain at home.

Where water is always at the front door a boat or a canoe is as common as a sleeping mat, and children learn to swim as soon as they can walk. The only member of the family who is not as much at home in the river as in the house is the tiny baby, but if, by any chance, it falls into the water, it is rapidly dived for and rescued by one of its relatives, perhaps its grandmother.

If the house is on piles the space between the floor and the ground is used as a stable for cattle or a dumping ground for rubbish. If the house is built out over a stream all the rubbish goes into it and is carried away by the river.

Because the Burmese are mostly farmers, they live in villages and not in towns. In the south, where most of the rice is grown, and most of the roads are water roads, the villages usually face a stream and are open on that side. In other parts of the country the villages are surrounded by a high strong fence of thorns or of wooden palings to keep out wild beasts and bands of robbers. In the fence there are one or more gates that are closed at night and are watched by a watchman—when he remembers not to go to sleep.

By the gates are little cupboards, thatched with grass, in which are placed jars of drinking water for the use of thirsty people. The cup is a polished coconut shell with a long handle.

There are usually plenty of children in the village, and very happy little people they are. When they are babies they roll about in the dust without any clothes, are carried by the mother on her hip or sleep in a cradle made of bamboo. As soon as they are old enough, they begin to help at home or in the fields. They drive the oxen and the buffaloes and sit on platforms making all kinds of noises to frighten away birds.

In the olden days the girls did not go to school unless they lived in a town, but this is not so now. At home they learn to cook and clean rice and to weave the cloth for their clothes. They cut firewood

and fetch water from the well or the river, and sometimes mother has to wait a long time for the water because there is so much chattering at the well.

They wear, like their brothers and their parents, a short white jacket and a kind of brightly colored skirt, and as these garments have few or no pockets they make baskets in which to carry things. The only difference between the dress of the men and the women is that the men wear some kind of covering on the head while the women do not.

Boys nearly always go to school. In every village there is a place called a monastery: this consists chiefly of a number of houses where the monks live and one large schoolroom; the monks are the schoolmasters. A peep into such a school would show us perhaps a dozen boys, with eyes as bright as beads, sitting cross-legged on the floor learning the Burmese ABC not from a book but from a board. Each of the pupils is shouting out his letters, and there is a great deal of noise. At one time reading and writing were almost the only things taught in these old village schools, tho lessons were also given in arithmetic. In the larger villages and towns the schools are managed by the Government and children learn much more: as a Burmese boy once said, "Monk's school for pleasant; English school for get-on."

Games are much the same as ours. Girls have dolls to dress and nurse, while boys have marbles, tops, kites, toy boats and footballs. There is a national game, a kind of football, in which there are no goals and the players stand in a ring. The ball is of cane and only about six inches in diameter. It is thrown into the air and the game is to keep it in the air as long as possible, either with the head, the foot, the knee, the shoulder or the elbow, but it must not be touched by hand. If the ball falls behind the player he does not turn round but, throwing his leg behind, gives it a flick with his heel and brings it back into the circle.

The Burmese, not only the children but also their fathers and mothers, believe in good and bad spirits, in ghosts and fairies, some of which live in trees and flowers. Here and there in the trees the grown-ups build tiny houses in which the fairies may live, and folks going by get down from any animal they may be riding and pass as quickly as they can in order not to disturb the wee people in their homes up above.

EDITORIAL NOTES AND NEWS

Privately owned lands within National Forest areas totaling 154,420 acres have been recently approved for Federal purchase by the National Forest Reservation Commission. About one-third of these lands are in the Lake States, another third in the Appalachian region, and most of the remainder in the Ozark and Central Mississippi and the Southern Pine regions, together with a small acreage in New England. The average price an acre is $2.97. The total of acquisitions under the emergency program is 3,233,862 acres. In addition to this the Commission has approved the establishment of 13 new National Forest units, and enlargement of 13 existing units in ten states east of the Great Plains. The gross area of these new units will be more than six million acres. Texas which has had no National Forests will have four of the units. Another will be in central Puerto Rico. These acquisitions are resigned to insure a regulated and continuous output of forest products in perpetuity, to provide watershed protection, and check serious erosion. Furthermore the amendments to the Lumber Code provide for continual production of timber on all privately owned lands. The amendments were formulated by lumbermen in cooperation with public agencies interested in forest conservation.

About five hundred teachers attended the March meeting of the Alabama State Council of Geography Teachers which was held at Birmingham in connection with the meeting of the State Education Association. Miss Loula Upton was elected president for the ensuing year. Dr. Floyd F. Cunningham, State Teachers College, Florence, will represent Alabama at the International Geographical Congress, Warsaw, August 23-31.

The annual meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers will be held during the Christmas holidays in Philadelphia at the University of Pennsylvania. Further particulars will be published in the September issue of the JOURNAL.

A department of geography has recently been established at the University of Georgia. E. S. Sell, formerly of the Georgia State Teachers College, Athens, heads the department.

DR. GUY HAROLD SMITH of the Department of Geography, Ohio State University, is the Cartographic adviser of the Mississippi Valley Committee. He is also cooperating with the Ohio State Planning Board in a study of population problems in Ohio.

DR. ESTHER ANDERSON, University of Nebraska, will attend the meetings of the International Geographical Congress, Warsaw, in August.

Most of the papers read at the March geography section meeting of the Ohio Academy of Science centered around various phases of regional planning, economic land utilization, aerial and geodetic surveys. Dr. Roderick Peattie, of Ohio State University, presided.

According to a recent release from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, our farm population reached an all-time high record on January 1, estimated at 32,509,000. The increase is attributed to an excess of births over deaths since more people left farms for cities than went from cities to farms. Since during the three preceding years the net migration was toward the farm, the cityward migration is probably due to re-employment in urban industries and employment in temporary work—relief projects. Few farm-born young people moved away from the farm in search of employment for the first time. Only the New England and Middle Atlantic States showed an increase in net farm-bound movement.

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

J. Russell Smith. **Foreign Lands and People,** 384 pp. Illustrated. John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia. 1933.

Foreign Lands and People—the fourth book in a series described by its author as the "single-cycle-plus" plan presents the geography of the Eastern Hemisphere with some regard to the relationships existing between the physical aspects of any region and its history and cultural influence.

In its organization, Dr. Smith states that he has recognized the principle that regions studied first should have simple geographic relationships and for this reason, the book starts with the study of the nomads in central Eurasia and then "swings over to the Mediterranean lands to those countries where life is more simple than in the industrial regions of northwest Europe." The principle is good but the reviewer thinks that to carry it out, northwestern Europe should be the last European unit studied not only because it is the most complex but also because the study of France, the British Isles, and the Netherlands forms an excellent introduction to the study of southeastern Asia.

The author shows careful discrimination in selecting the material presented. Important points are emphasized by interesting details, by the use of cross references, by pointed motivation of many units, and by numerous and varied checking activities. The style is interesting, vivid, and stimulating.

As a whole, the pictures supplement and enrich the geographic content. This is true especially of the pictures Dr. Smith has taken himself as he has for the unit on China. The captions are often good. Sometimes, as on page 73, Fig. A, one questions the purpose of picture and caption. Many pictures could be used more advantageously if the caption indicated the direction faced by the observer; see pages 78, 182, 184, 208, 210, etc.

The maps have been improved by leaving out the regional divisions, they are well placed for use, and the inclusion of the map of the United States aids comparisons. The "human use" maps should be helpful in finding relationships between rainfall, relief, types of vegetation, and human use. There is no map of this type for Australia. There are some errors. For example, the map of Asia shows a completed railroad between Hankow and Canton and the line is still unfinished.

In such general features as binding, type, vocabulary, supplementary material for teacher and children, tables of statistics, index, etc., the book is very good. Help is not always given in pronouncing the place names which are of recent origin or interest such as Uskudar, Gdynia, Jehol, and Pnom-Penk. Occasionally an expression is used which seems too technical for children. "The plain is an old lake bed filled in by mountain wash" is a case in point. The book is excellent in that it stresses geographic relationships, uses methods that are sound psychologicallly, develops skills and habits necessary for independent study, and fosters sympathetic understandings of how and why the "other half" of the world lives as it does.

ELLA M. WILSON

Michigan State Normal College

C. B. Fawcett. **A Political Geography of the British Empire,** 409 pp., 62 illus. Ginn and Company, 1933.

With the appearance of this volume we now have three recent similarly entitled works in as many languages. (The other two are: ***Das Britische Weltreich*** by Luft, and ***L'Empire britannique,*** by Demangeon.) Fawcett has set for himself a task which, if

consistently followed, would seem to be impossible of accomplishment in a series of volumes of several times the modest length of this book. The book "is an attempt to set out and examine those geographical facts which are of direct importance in their influence on the development and organization of the British Empire and its component parts." To embark upon such a program in the study of any political empire would be sufficiently ambitious; to make such a study of an empire covering one-fourth of the world's land area and including one-fourth of its population seems staggering in its proportions. The author, undismayed by the magnitude of the task as he sees it, even tho admitting that "its full treatment would be beyond the power of any single individual," seeks to attain his objectives by six opening chapters on the Empire as a whole, followed by seventeen on its component parts with a concluding chapter bearing the title: "Some World Relations of the British Empire."

The six opening chapters, occupying sixty-eight pages, are highly to be commended, not so much for the originality of the material as for the masterly way in which the writer has marshalled the politico-geographic problems "of a World State, perhaps the only state which is fully entitled to that description." In a breadth of perspective which is clearly the fruition of seven years of study and with a conciseness which many authors would do well to emulate, the writer tells of the areal distribution and the heterogeneous population of this far-flung empire and describes the sea- and airways by which the whole is, in a sense, held together. Particularly helpful to the geographers is the restraint in the use of the artificial subdivisions so commonly employed, for here it is made clear that it is sufficient to regard the Empire as being made up of two distinct groups: the lands occupied by the British Commonwealth and the British Dependencies respectively. There is no laborious classification into "Crown Colonies," "mandates" and so forth, tho the political status of the component parts is made clear during the progress of the study. Instead, emphasis is placed upon the environmental and cultural contrasts within the Empire.

These high standards are not maintained thruout the remainder of the book. Successive chapters deal with the component parts of the Empire commencing with the "homeland," then proceeding to the lands whose population is dominated by the "Englishry" (a word coined by the author) and finally to the possessions in Africa, Asia and elsewhere. This traditional order of treatment necessitates consideration of some of the more weighty and involved political problems before the less complicated problems are made clear. The latter part of the book resembles the excellent Oxford Series in being more of a regional geography than a political geography of the British Empire. For example, of the twenty-eight pages on Canada not more than a third is, properly speaking, political geography. Much of the descriptive matter seems unnecessarily simplified, quite in contrast, indeed, with the complicated nature of the political problems considered. The opening sentence in Chapter IX is: "The Dominion of Canada occupies the northern half of North America." Newfoundland is considered in three pages, presumably in conformity with its small area and population. However, the very real political problems of this island strike at the heart of political geography and merit more than the one paragraph allotted to them. This chapter ends with this provocative but unexplained statement: "But such a union [with Canada] could probably ease many of her economic and political difficulties." Some of these chapters, notably Chapter VII, The British Isles, Internal; Chapters XV and XVI on South Africa; Chapter XXII, The British Empire in West Africa and the first part of Chapter XXIII, The Smaller Scattered Dependencies, are well executed, equalling the earlier part of the volume. Embedded in nearly all parts of the volume are numerous nuggets of information well worth the searching.

While on the whole the volume is not a profound or searching work in the field of geography which it is intended to occupy, it will nevertheless be a useful book. No other small book in the language contains similar material and there are few books which pre-

serve such a high order of literary style. The book is interestingly written and is well illustrated with maps many of which are unusual. The book will be found informative by a large proportion of geography teachers and will be understandable by a still larger group of non-professional workers.

RALPH H. BROWN

University of Minnesota

R. E. Dickinson and O. J. R. Howarth. **The Making of Geography.** 264 pages, 30 maps and line drawings, and 5 plates (halftone reproductions). Oxford University Press, New York, 1933.

"The Making of Geography" is a comprehensive, scholarly treatment of the development of geography based on ancient and modern works and numerous articles from geographical journals. The source material, therefore, is both primary and secondary. The organization is chronological and biographical. Geographical explorations in all ages are stressed. The closing chapters are expositions on the development of physical geography, human geography, and biogeography.

The authors do not take a narrow viewpoint of geography. Their treatment includes astronomical or mathematical geography, descriptive geography, political, human, historical (or progressive), physical, civil geography, biogeography, economic and commercial geography, as well as ethnography, surveying, cartography, chorography (or special geography), topography, cosmography, and anthopogeography. Their survey of modern geography is complete and unbiased. At no place (that is evident) do the authors play the rôle of a critic or express their conviction as to that much debated question, "What is geography?"

That there is nothing new under the sun in geography one can readily discover in a careful perusal of this brief treatise. Ptolemy (365-285 B.C.?) brought out the distinction between geography, chorography, and topography. Strabo (64 B.C. to 24 A.D.) wrote human, historical, political, and regional geography, the latter closely akin to chorography. Like many modern human geographers, he was content to accept the findings of geometricians, cosmographers, astronomers, and physicists for facts concerned with the form of the geosphere and its place in the universe. Cluverius (1580-1622) stressed the human and historical elements. He recognized the distinction between geography and chorography. The regional concept was introduced in France in the eighteenth century by Buache. Humboldt used the regional method of description, but he did not draw definite regional boundaries.

The volume presents eighteen line drawings of (mostly) very rare, original maps. The earliest dates from 2700 B.C. At the time of Heroditus (484-425 B.C.?) the Greeks had a fairly accurate conception of the eastern Mediterranean and the region from the "Columns of Hercules" to the Caspian Sea and the Indus River. In their world were included the Nile, the Red Sea (called the Arabian Gulf), the Black Sea, and the Danube. These near approaches to the true world were followed by the churchman's fantastic maps of the Dark Ages, based on a literal interpretation of the Scriptures with apparently no regard to observable surface features and distribution of land forms and people. During the long period of the Middle Ages (about the sixth to the fifteenth centuries) it was the Moslems that preserved for the geographers of the Renaissance period Greek and Roman geographical writings. Geographical discovery was a big factor in the Renaissance in geography. Asia, northern Europe, Africa, and America were visited and explored, and map-makers added volumes to the records of geography.

The early part of the book is necessarily encyclopedic in its treatment. The last few chapters show a familiarity with all the developments in both Europe and America. The book is, however, essentially a history of the European geography and of the European geographer.

A. E. PARKINS

Peabody College

The JOURNAL *of* GEOGRAPHY

CONTENTS FOR SEPTEMBER, 1934

Some Aspects of Urbanization in Japan. By D. H. Davis 205

Dr. Davis is professor of geography and head of the Department of Geography at the University of Minnesota. He has been a frequent contributor to the JOURNAL. This article is based on personal observations in Japan during the spring and early summer of 1932.

The Geography of American Geographers. By A. E. Parkins 221

Dr. Parkins is head of the Department of Geography, George Peabody College for Teachers. He is well known to American teachers for his many contributions to geographic education, and as chairman of the committee that prepared the Thirty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

A Geography Program for the High School. By Helen A. Burrill .. 231

Miss Burrill is a member of the Department of Geography, Joliet Township High School, Joliet, Illinois. She has also been a member of the staff at Nebraska Wesleyan University and the State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri, during summer sessions.

Temperature and Precipitation Map of the United States. By J. Sullivan Gibson 237

Mr. Gibson was formerly in the Department of Geography, State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Kentucky, and has been completing the work for his doctorate at Clark University during the past year. He is author of Agriculture of the Southern High Plains, and Land Economy of Warren County, Kentucky, which appeared in *Economic Geography*, July, 1932, and January and April, 1934.

The Coffee Growers of Kenya. By Ernest Young 241

Mr. Young is a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society and author of The Kingdom of the Yellow Robe; Finland; and other books. He has traveled extensively thruout the world and writes from intimate knowledge of his subject. His many years of educational service enable him to write effectively for children as this series of articles so well illustrates. This is the eighth in our UNIT STUDIES series.

Editorial Notes and News 247

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